DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 328 593 TM 016 112

AUTHOR Koubek, Richard J.

TITLE The Role of Training, Individual Differences and

Knowledge Representation in Cognitive-Oriented Task

Performance.

INSTITUTION Wright State Univ., Dayton, Ohio.

SPONS AGENCY Office of Naval Research, Arlington, VA. Cognitive

and Neural Sciences Div.

PUB DATE Dec 90

CONTRACT ONR-N00014-90-J-1256

NOTE 25p.

PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS *Cognitive Ability; Cognitive Scyle; Comparative

Analysis; Difficulty Level; Higher Education; Hypothesis Testing; *Individual Differences; Knowledge Level; *Performance Factors; Skill Development; *Training; *Undergraduate Students

IDENTIFIERS Automatization; *Knowledge Representation; *Training

Effectiveness

ABSTRACT

The roles of training, problem representation, and individual differences on performance of both automated (simple) and controlled (complex) process tasks were studied. The following hypotheses were tested: (1) training and cognitive style affect the representation developed; (2) training and cognitive style affect the development and performance of automated processing; (3) training and cognitive style affect controlled process task performance; (4) task representation affects development and performance of automated processes; and (5) task representation affects controlled process task performance. To test these hypotheses, 19 undergraduate students (9 males and 10 females) of varying cognitive abilities were trained in an alphabetic (n=9) or hierarchical (n=10) manner to use a word processor. After training, the subjects' task representation was assessed and they were required to perform both controlled and automatic process tasks. The first hypothesis was not supported; the second, fourth, and fifth hypotheses were supported; and the third hypothesis could not be confirmed. Performance on repetitive tasks associated with automatization was influenced by training style and the mental task representation held by individuals. Task representation was also a significant determinant of performance on complex cognitive-oriented (controlled process) tasks. No effect was found for individual differences. To maximize performance, training and task design should consider the mental representation of the task. Two figures and four tables present study data. (SLD)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made

* from the original document.



Points of view or opinions stated in this dox ument, do not necessarily represent afficial OFRI position or policy

The Role of Training, Individual Differences and Knowledge Representation in Cognitive-Criented. Task Performance

Richard J. Koubek

Human Pactors Engineering Wright Some University Dayton, Omo 45435

December, 1990

Prepared under compact number NOXO(4-90-1-1286, 442-558

Cognitive and Neural Sciences Differences

Office of Naval Research

Approved to public ralesse, distribation callmited Reproduction in whole or in part is permitted for any purpose of the Unised States Government.

(7)

S

9

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE			Form Approved OMB No 0704-0188	
1a REPORT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION		16 RESTRICTIVE MARKINGS		
Unclassified 2a SECURITY CLASSIFICATION AUTHORITY		3 DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY OF REPORT		
		Approved for public re	lease:	
2b DECLASSIFICATION / DOWNGRADING SCHEDUL	.E	distribution unlimited		
4 PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBE	R(S)	5 MONITORING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER(S)		
6a NAME OF PERFORMING ORGANIZATION	6b OFFICE SYMBOL	7a NAME OF MONITORING ORGANIZATION		
Rick Koubek (If applicable)		Cognitive Science Research Program		
Wright State University		Office of Naval Researc	h(Code 1142CS)	
6c. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code)		7b ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code)		
Dept. of BHE		800 N. Quincy Street		
Wright State University		Arlington, Virginia 22	217-5000	
Davton, Ohio 45435 Ba. NAME OF FUNDING/SPONSORING	8b OFFICE SYMBOL	9 PROCUREMENT INSTRUMENT IDENTIFICAT	ION NUMBER	
ORGANIZATION	(If applicable)	N00014-90-J-1256		
		10 SOURCE OF FUNDING NUMBERS		
Bc. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code)		PROGRAM PROJECT TASK	WORK UNIT	
		ELEMENT NO NO NO	ACCESSION NO	
		61153N RR-042-04 042-0	4-01 442-558	
11 TITLE (Include Security Classification) THE ROLE OF TRAINING, INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND KNOWLEDGE REPRESENTATION IN COGNITIVE-ORIENTED TASK PERFORMANCE 12 PERSONAL AUTHOR(S)				
Koubek, Richard J. 13a TYPE OF REPORT 13b TIME COVERED 14 DATE OF REPORT (Year, Month. Day) 15 PAGE COUNT			PAGE COUNT	
Interm FROM 11/1/89 TO 10/31/90 12/1/90 12/1/90				
To appear in International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction. Vol 3(1) 17 COSATI CODES 18 SUBJECT TERMS (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number) Knowledge Representation, Task Performance Measurement, Automatization 19 ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number) This research examines the impact of training style, individual differences and task representation on automatized task performance and				
controlled task performance. Results indicate that performance on relatively straightforward repetitive tasks, usually associated with automatization, is influenced by training style and the mental task				
representation held by individuals. Also, task representation is a significant determinant of performance on complex cognitive-oriented				
tasks (i.e., controlled process tasks). Therefore, the task				
representation is suggested as a high level determinant for both simple				
and complex task performance. No effect for individual differences was				
found. It is concluded that training programs and task design for these				
type of activities must account for the representation in an effort to				
maximize individual performance. 20 DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY OF ABSTRACT 21 ABSTRACT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION				
TATUNCIASSIFIED/UNLIMITED SAME AS RPT DTIC USERS				
223 NAME OF RESPONSIBLE INDIVIDUAL		22b TEI,EPHONE (Include Area Code) 22c O		
Dr. Charles Davis		(202) 696·4046 ONR	1142PT	

DD Form 1473, JUN 86

Previous editions are obsolete

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE



I. INTRODUCTION

As the United States begins to experience the effects of the "baby bust" and an increased emphasis on college training, rather than vocational, the labor pool from which to draw workers decreases. In addition, computer skill levels required for these jobs are increasing, thus further reducing the number of potentially qualified applicants. As more businesses become automated, persons with little computer experience are suddenly thrust into a virtual "computer world". Given this scenario, an effort must be made to determine those elements of training which will aide in the acquisition of skill on computer-based tasks.

In general, at least three primary factors exist, related particularly to the individual, which can impact productivity in cognitive-oriented work: previous learning (including training), present knowledge of the task and individual differences. While externally determined factors, such as work schedule and compensation are important, the present paper focuses on the internal factors.

It appears certain that the mental representation of the system one holds is a determining factor in the ability to solve complex problems. For example, Kieras and Bovair (1984) performed a study concerned with the importance of mental models in learning to operate an unfamiliar piece of equipment (a basic control panel). It was shown that the group trained with the mental model learned and executed the procedures more quickly, had superior retention and simplified inefficient procedures more often than the group trained without the model. In the realm of computer programming, Mayer (1989) suggests that the presentation of a concrete model early in a novice programmer's training program may have beneficial effects on his or her encoding and use of new technical information. Adelson (1981) demonstrated that expert programmers reorganize randomized computer code in a hierarchial structure, while novices group code according to its syntactic similarity. Likewise, McKeithen, Reitman, Reuter and Hirtle (1981) studied the memory strategies of novices and experts. In the reproduction of a computer program, novices used general mnemonic strategies, such as an alphabetic strategy, while experts used a more specific strategy of grouping the words according to their functions. While the results of Mayer's study would tend to favor the incorporation of a concrete model in training a novice programmer, the results of Adelson and McKeithen et al. would suggest the use of more hierarchial representations for attaining higher levels of skill.

Rather than focus on a single training style, recent research has suggested the need to tailor training programs to individual differences. Sein and Bostrom (1989), for example, have found that people with an "abstract" learning style will perform significantly better when provided a training program which emphasizes the abstract features of the domain, while those with a "concrete" learning style perform almost twice as well when given an analogical (concrete) training program compared to the abstract training program. Some researchers have attempted to train expert and novice programmers to form a particular mental representation. For example, Adelson (1984) showed that novices could be forced into a semantic representation (as opposed to their preferred syntactic representation), and experts could be forced into a syntactic representation (as opposed to their preferred semantic representation). However, these representations proved unstable, and both groups eventually switched back to their more "natural" representation. It would appear that, as implied by the results of Kolodner (1983), Murphy and Wright (1984), Novick (1988), and



Koubek and Salvendy (1989), this "change-over" from a concrete mental representation of the novice to an abstract representation of the expert will occur over time, only as the novice gains additional experience in a particular task domain.

Others have shown the importance of a breadth-first, compared to a depth-first training style for final performance on troubleshooting tasks. Zeit and Spoehr (1989) concluded that the degree of hierarchial structure within a learning tool is reflected in the structure of the learner's knowledge representation. In addition, a hierarchically organized knowledge base, along with applied practice, will lead to procedural representations, while subjects who lack a hierarchial knowledge base will not develop procedural representations. In support of the interplay of one's knowledge structure and the performance level of a given task, Lambert and Newsome (1989) studied the impact of question format and organization presented by an intelligent system on the problem-solving performance of experts (high-skill employees) and novices (low-skill employees). The results provide further evidence that experts and novices organize conceptual knowledge of a problem in different manners. When questions were posed by the system requiring concrete information organization, low-skill employees performed significantly faster than when the questions required abstract information organization. Additionally, high-skill employees performed faster in response to questions which required abstract information organization as compared to concrete information organization. These findings may have far reaching implications in the development of expert systems, as well as in training novices to program and debug efficiently.

Another emphasis in the literature suggests training to develop automatic processes (Fisk and Gallini, 1989). This is supported by Wiedenbeck (1985) who found that, even in simple, automated tasks, experts are significantly faster and more accurate than novices. Automaticity states that as practice accrues on consistent task components, then the processes associated with executing these consistent components become automated, and automated processes require no cognitive resources. Non-consistent task components, however, must be executed with controlled processes, which are resource intensive. Therefore, if one were able to be trained to automatically process certain cognitive information (i.e. computer code), thereby requiring less cognitive resources for the performance of that particular cognitive task, the speed and efficiency of task performance would increase.

Cognitive style may also be a determining factor of one's asymptotic skill level for computer-oriented tasks. For example, the cognitive style of field independence is "definable in terms of degree of dependence on the structure of the prevailing visual field, ranging from great dependence, at one extreme, to great ability to deal with the presented field analytically, or to separate an item from the configuration in which it occurs, at the other" (Witkin, Lewis, Hertzman, Machover, Meissner and Wapner, 1954). In a study which examined student and professional programmers' cognitive representations of software, Holt, Boehm-Davis and Schultz (1987) found that the mental models formed (which were examined while subjects performed either simple or complex modifications to a program) were affected by problem structure, problem type, and ease of program modification. Specifically, the mental models of the professionals were most affected by modification difficulty, while the mental models of the students were most affected by the structure and content of the programs. This suggests that the professionals may act in a "field independent" manner, since they were less influenced by the surface structure of the



program. Conversely, it is possible that the students, who were primarily affected by the surface structure and content of the programs, may be classified as "field dependent". While evidence supports each of the above stated factors as performance determinants, it is beginning to appear that a complex interaction exists between individual differences, training and the current knowledge representation of the task.

Derivation of Hypotheses

From the above review, several factors have been studied extensively as influential in producing cognitive-oriented task performance. The present research examines the role of training, problem representation and individual differences on performance of both automated (simple) and controlled (complex) process tasks. The following hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis One: Training and cognitive style affect the representation developed.

<u>Hypothesis Two</u>: Training and cognitive style affect the development and performance of automated processing.

Hypothesis Three: Training and cognitive style affect controlled process task performance.

<u>Hypothesis Four</u>. The task representation affects the development and performance of automated processes.

<u>Hypothesis Five</u>: The task representation affects controlled process task performance.

II. METHOD

In order to test the above hypotheses, subjects of varying cognitive styles were trained in either an Alphabetical or Hierarchial manner to use a word processor. Following training, their task representation was assessed and they were required to perform both controlled and automatic process tasks.

Task

Subjects were required to perform four tasks: cognitive style assessment, domain training, representation evaluation and stimulus task execution. The cognitive style of Field Independence (FI) - Field Dependence (FD) was used to categorize subjects with respect to their individual differences. Based on the cognitive style theory mentioned previously, one would predict that FI and FD subjects would tend to form conceptually different knowledge representations depending on the structure of their training.

Following the administration of the Hidden Figures Test (Ekstrom, French, Harman and Dermen, 1976) to assess cognitive style, subjects were trained to use a computer word processor (Microsoft Word version 4). Subjects received training on the word processor in



one of two ways. One group received the commands arranged alphabetically while the other group received training in which the commands were arranged in a hierarchial manner, based on their functional interrelationships. Each group was given the same commands and examples from which to learn. The only difference was presentation order.

The third task required subjects to complete a representation evaluation form. This form presented 17 learned word processing commands, paired with one another, to yield a total of 136 items. Subjects were asked to rate the degree of similarity on a 5-point Likert-type scale for each pair. This data was evaluated through clustering techniques to identify the subject's representation of the word processing domain.

The fourth experimental component required subjects to perform two text editing tasks using the word processing skills learned in the second phase. In the first editing task, subjects were presented a document and were asked to perform a centering task 30 times, once each on evenly spaced lines. This task was relatively straightforward and the cognitive process should have been easily automated. This is defined as the AP (automated process) task. The second task required subjects to place two paragraphs side-by-side in the document. The side-by-side procedure required a combination of several steps and was relatively complex. Subjects were allowed 15 minutes to complete this task. The side-by-side task is designated as the CP (controlled process) task.

Subjects

While 20 subjects volunteered for the experiment, one was eliminated due to her experience with the stimulus task. The remaining 19 (9 male and 10 female) were undergraduate university students, from a variety of academic majors with little or no general word processing experience and no prior experience with the present system. Based on their Hidden Figures Test score, subjects were classified as either FI or FD. The national average score on this test, 16, is used as the criterion for placement into groups. Ten subjects had scores below 16 (FD) while nine had scores of 16 or above (FI). These subjects were randomly divided into the training conditions, yielding nine trained alphabetically and ten hierarchically.

Variable Definition and Experimental Design

The independent variables for this study were cognitive style and training method. As described above, the representation was elicited through cluster analysis of similarity ratings. This analysis provided insight into the manner in which subjects group various commands and can suggest evidence regarding the accuracy and completeness of their mental representation. From the cluster analysis, the representation was characterized by the variables listed in Table 1.



TABLE 1. Description of Representation Variables.

VARIABLE	DESCRIPTION	
Maximum Distance Between Clusters	Provides overall rating of the differentiation between clusters. Low values indicate little distinction between commands.	
Total Number of Clusters	Calculated by counting the number of separate clusters that exceed one-half the maximum distance between clusters. Clusters which exceed this value can be considered prominent and significant.	
Number of Horizontal Layout Commands Misclassified	Three conceptual clusters exist in the task: horizontal page layout commands, vertical page layout commands and font commands. This variable indicates the number of horizontal layout commands which were incorrectly classified into vertical layout or font clusters.	
Number of Vertical Layout Commands Misclassified	See above.	
Number of Font Commands Misclassified	See above.	
Purity of Horizontal Layout Cluster	Binomial variable which indicates whether subjects had a single cluster which included all the horizontal layout commands and no others. Impure=0 and pure=1.	
Purity of Vertical Layout Cluster	See above.	
Purity of Font Cluster	See above.	
Overall Cluster Purity	Composite value which is computed by summing the individual purity values.	
Number of Commands Not Clustered	Provides an indication of domain representation completeness.	



Three variables were derived to characterize automation: alpha, T_0 and T_{1000} . For the AP task, performance was described by the log-linear function $T_n = T_0 n^{-alpha}$. In this equation, alpha represents the rate of learning and T_0 is the time for completion of the first trial. These parameters were derived directly from the data. Using these values, the time for the 1000th trial, T_{1000} , was calculated as an estimate of asymptotic performance. CP task performance was characterized by whether the subject completed the task in the allotted time. Therefore, the dependent variables are T0, T1000, alpha (for the AP task) and whether the CP task was completed. In addition, the representation oriented variables serve as either dependents or independents as a function of the analysis.

A 2x2 MANOVA design was used to test the first two hypotheses. The independent variables were cognitive style (FI versus FD) and training (Alphabetical versus Hierarchial). The dependent variables for each analysis were those derived from the representation and automated process tasks respectively. Due to sample size restrictions, the third hypothesis was tested with a Chi-Square procedure. The fourth hypothesis, designed to examine the relationship between task representation and automation, was performed with canonical correlation and multiple regression procedures, while the fifth hypothesis was tested with Chi-Square and discriminant analysis techniques.

Procedure

Prior to the training phase, subjects were administered the Hidden Figures test to determine their cognitive style and assigned to the appropriate training group. An attempt was made to evenly distribute FI and FD subjects into the training conditions. In the second phase, subjects received their respective training modules. During training, subjects read hard-copy descriptions of each command and were required to practice each command with the actual system before proceeding. Subjects were allowed as much time as necessary.

Upon completion of training, subjects were given the representation evaluation form and asked to bring the completed form back the next day, when they would perform the stimulus tasks. On the day following training, subjects were allowed to re-familiarize themselves with the system and then perform the AP and CP tasks in that order. The subjects were provided with a keyboard and a mouse as their computer interface for the two tasks. Their training manuals were also furnished for assistance. A concurrent verbal report was required of the subjects throughout the CP task. Each subject was allowed 15 minutes to complete the CP task. The testing session was video taped for later analysis. Following testing, a second representation evaluation form, identical to the first, was completed to identify any possible changes in knowledge representation.



III. RESULTS

Training and Individual Difference Effects

Representation Development. Hypothesis 1: Training and cognitive style affects the representation developed. The potentially complex interactions of various representation variables warrant multivariate analysis procedures, therefore, a 2X2 MANOVA was performed with cognitive style and training as the independent variables. (Vertical commands, horizontal commands and font purity were not included in this analysis due to their non-normality). The dependent variables were derived from the cluster analysis as described previously. No significant effects were found for training, cognitive style or the interaction. Therefore, Hypothesis One is not supported.

Automated Task Performance. Hypothesis Two: Training and cognitive style affect the development and performance of automated processes. As described above, the variables used to characterize automated task performance are alpha, T_0 and T_{1000} . As might be expected, these variables are all significantly correlated with each other at the p<.02 level. For the purposes of this experiment, each variable is examined independently through a 2x2 ANOVA procedure with training and cognitive style serving as the independent variables.

Regarding initial performance, T_0 , while no main effects occur, a significant interaction between training and cognitive style is evident (F(1,15)=7.04; p<.018). See Table 2 for these results. With regard to learning rate (Table 3), once again, a significant interaction occurs (F(1,15)=6.45; p<.023). The highest values (or fastest learning rate) are found for FD subjects with Alphabetic training (significantly different from all other means at p<.05) while the lowest learning rate occurs for FD subjects with Hierarchial training. There appears only a slight trend for FI subjects to acquire automated processes more quickly with a hierarchial representation (see Figure 1).

From Figure 1, it appears that FD subjects perform better initially when presented with hierarchial training (p<.05 level; Newman-Keuls test). After practice, however, the computed T_{1000} value indicates that final performance for FD subjects is best served with the Alphabetic training rather than Hierarchial training (p<.05). Neither main effects nor the interaction were statistically significant for T_{1000} .

Apparently, the hierarchial representation training allows FD subjects to more quickly orient to the problem. As expected by the definition of Fie'd Independence, performance of subjects classified into this group appear unaffected by the training style. Further research is needed to examine this issue more clearly.



TABLE 2. ANOVA results for the effect of training and cognitive style on the development and initial performance (T₀) of automated processes.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p-value
Training	1	0.3709	0.3709	3.20	0.094
Cognitive Style	1	0.1929	0.1929	1.66	0.217
Interaction	1	0.8162	0.8162	7.04	0.018
Error	15	1.7393	0.1159		

TABLE 3. ANOVA results for the effect of training and cognitive style on the development of automated processes.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p-value
Training	1	0.0381	0.0381	3.94	0.066
Cognitive Style	1	0.0091	0.0091	0.94	0.348
Interaction	1	0.0624	0.0624	6.45	0.023
Error	15	0.1453	0.0097		



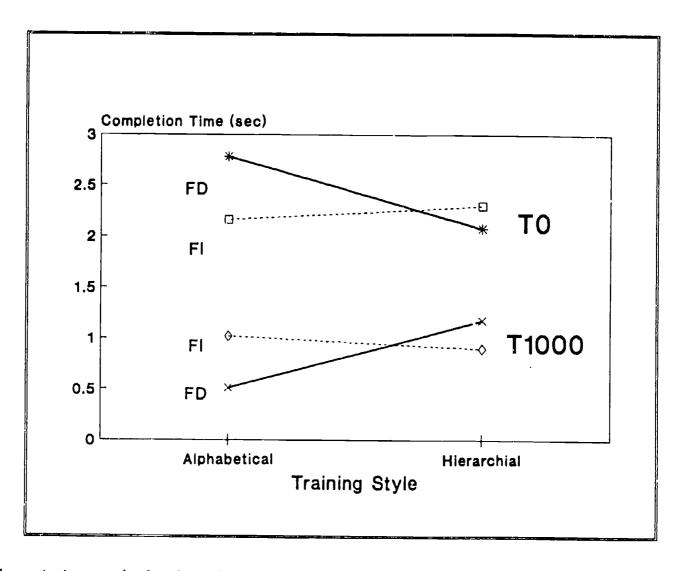


Figure 1. Automatized task performance: T_0 and T_{1000} completion times.



Controlled Task Performance. Hypothesis Three: Training and cognitive style affect controlled process task performance. On the CP task, six of the 19 subjects found the correct solution within the allotted time of 15 minutes. Due to the limited number of those completing the task, the effect of training and cognitive style on CP task completion were analyzed separately using Chi-Square procedures. The statistic was identical for both variables: χ^2 =.693; p<.405. Therefore, hypothesis three cannot be confirmed.

Representation Effects

Automated Process Task Performance. Hypothesis Four: The task representation affects automated processes. To evaluate hypothesis four, a canonical correlation was first performed on the representation variables (excluding overall cluster purity since it is a linear combination of existing variables) and the automation variables listed previously. This multivariate procedure determines the relationship between two sets of variables (SAS Institute, 1988). Results indicate a statistically significant correlation between the two groups. The Squared Canonical Correlation is 0.82, which is significant at the p<.02 level. It is therefore suggested that a relationship exists between the representation subjects possess and their performance on automated tasks, supporting hypothesis four.

In an effort to examine this relationship in more detail, three stepwise multiple regression analyses were performed on alpha, T_0 and T_{1000} respectively, using the representation variables as independent variables. From this analysis, the rate of learning (alpha) can be predicted by the Maximum Distance Between Clusters and the Purity of Font Cluster variables (using 0.15 as the entry and removal criterion). With these two independent variables, 31.55 percent of the variance in alpha can be predicted (F(2,16)=3.69; p<.048).

In addition to the above two independent variables, the regression equation to predict initial time to perform the AP task, T_0 , includes the Number of Horizontal Commands Misclassified. This is logical since the AP task dealt primarily with horizontal page layout. With these three variables, the computed statistics are as follows: $R^2=.593$, F(3,15)=7.28; p<.003. No variables met the 0.15 significance level for entry into the model for predicting estimated final performance, T_{1000} . From the above results, hypothesis four is supported and it can be concluded that the knowledge representation impacts AP task performance, at least in the initial stages of developing automaticity.

Controlled Task Performance. Hypothesis Five: The task representation affects controlled process performance. For this analysis, subjects were divided into two groups based on whether they successfully completed the task in the allotted time. From this, a Chi-Square analysis was performed using the variables Overall Cluster Purity (grouped as 0-1 and 2-3) and successful or non-successful task completion (see Figure 2). This analysis reveals that there is a significant dependency between these variables ($\chi^2=6.094$; p<.025).



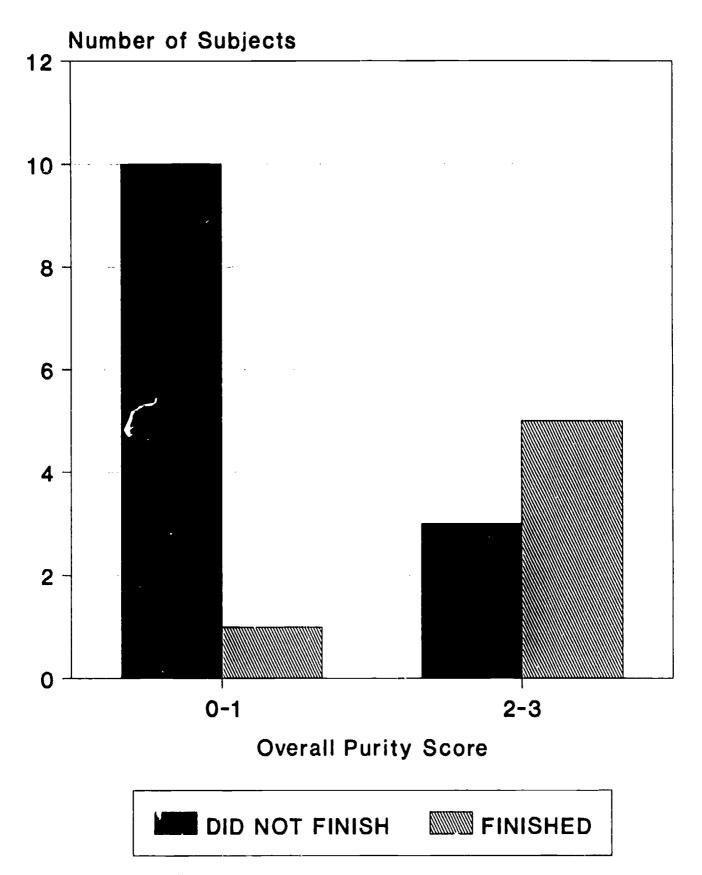


Figure 2. Overall purity score and controlled process task performance.



In order to determine the utility of this finding for predicting performance on CP tasks from knowing the knowledge representation features, a discriminant analysis was performed on the 19 subjects. Using the computed discriminant function with Overall Cluster Purity, 89.13 percent of the subjects were correctly classified as successful or unsuccessful. More specifically, one successful subject and three unsuccessful subjects were misclassified. With only one variable, the accuracy of this discriminant function supports hypothesis five, that representation significantly influences controlled task performance.

In order to determine the CP solution strategies of the subjects, a GOMS analysis was performed on the verbal protocol data (selection rules were not obtained in this analysis). A "master" GOMS solution containing a set of three goals and their coinciding methods and operators to accomplish those goals was developed upon which to compare subject solution strategies. From the analysis of the subjects' solutions, three strategies became evident: Direct, Single Branch and Multiple Branch.

Those subjects whose strategies contained no incorrect methods (that is, all methods utilized led the subject closer to the task goal) were classified as Direct (D). The only deviations of these subjects' solutions from the master GOMS solution were individual "operators" within the chosen methods. Four subjects were placed in this category, and of these, three successfully completed the task.

A second strategy classification is Single Branch (SB). These subjects tended to follow a single solution path, even when that particular path was not leading them closer to the task goal. The classification criterion for this category required the subject to have performed three successive methods (different by no more than one operator) that did not advance the subject closer to the ultimate goal. This pattern may have occurred at any point within the solution set. Five subjects were determined to be Single Branch, and none reached the solution of the CP task.

The final strategy is Multiple Branch (MB). The remaining ten subjects moved from method to method in search of the correct solution pattern (which three subjects located). To be placed in this category, subjects must have implemented 2 or less incorrect methods consecutively, while not following the Direct pattern. It should be noted that, in order to ensure the correct placement of subjects into their respective solution strategy groups, the classification process was performed independently by two raters.

Following the placement of subjects into their respective solution strategy groups, a Wilcoxon's Rank-Sum Test was performed, using Overall Cluster Purity as the ranked variable, in order to determine if representation differences existed between the groups. Purity scores were then tested for each solution strategy group against the purity scores of the other groups independently. The overall purity scores in the Direct group were found to be higher than those in the Single Branch group ($W_{\bullet}(n_1=4,n_2=5)=11.5$; p<.05), and those in the Multiple Branch group ($W_{\bullet}(n_1=4,n_2=10)=17$; p<.05). The overall purity scores appear to be slightly higher in the Single Branch group than in the Multiple Branch group, but the result was not significant. Figure 3 shows the relationship among the group means. From the previous results, it can be seen that subjects with high purity scores tend to utilize a Direct solution strategy when performing a controlled process task, while subjects with low overall purity scores follow a Multiple or Single Branch approach. It is noteworthy to mention that 75% of those subjects with Direct strategies completed the task compared to 30% and 0% of the Multiple Branch and Single Branch Groups respectively.



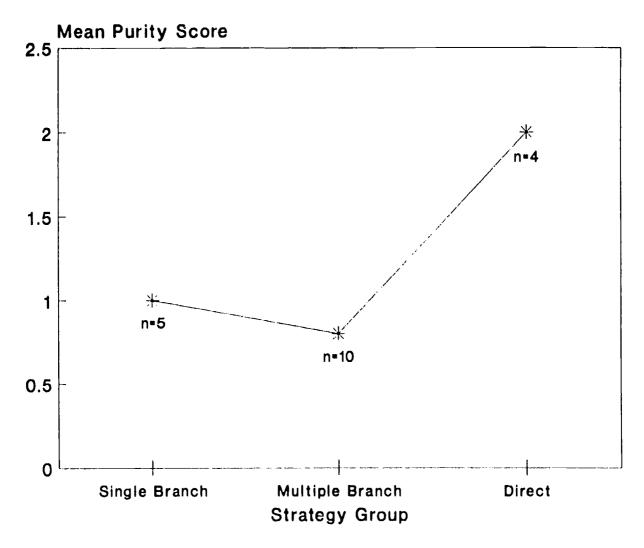


Figure 3. Mean overall purity scores of solution strategy groups.





In summary of this section, it appears that task representation affects the solution strategy employed in a complex cognitive task, which in turn is a determining factor of successful task completion. A complete summary of the statistical analyses performed in this study is given in Table 4.

IV. CONCLUSION

The first hypothesis of this study (training and cognitive style affects the representation developed) was not supported. Similar to the results of Adelson (1984), the particular training (Hierarchial versus Alphabetical) administered to the subjects, regardless of their cognitive style, did not affect their developed representation. Again, it appears that subjects will maintain their most natural representation.

Significant results were obtained for the effect of training and cognitive style on the development and performance of automated processes. The fastest learning rate was found for Field Dependent subjects with Alphabetic training, while the slowest learning rate occurred in Field Dependent subjects trained hierarchically. Initial AP task performance of FD subjects was actually aided by hierarchial training, but the final performance was best aided by alphabetic training. This result is related to previous findings which suggest a switch from a concrete to an abstract representation as one becomes experienced in a particular task domain. In particular, an individual is not necessarily an expert simply because a particular task has been automated.

No evidence was found to support the effect of training and cognitive style on controlled process task performance (that is, whether the subjects finished the CP task in the allotted time). Further research is needed in this area.

Automated processes were found to be affected by the task representation. More precisely, the rate of learning, alpha, was predicted by two independent variables: Maximum Distance Between Clusters and the Purity of Font Cluster. In addition, the initial time to perform the AP task, T_0 , could be predicted with the inclusion of a third independent variable, the Number of Horizontal Commands Misclassified.

Controlled process task performance was also found to be affected by the task representation. Simply by knowing the subjects' task representations (based upon Overall Cluster Purity), approximately 89% of the subjects were correctly classified as to whether they finished the CP task. In addition, the particular strategy utilized to perform the CP task was affected by the task representation. Overall Purity scores were highest for those subjects who approached the task with a Direct strategy, and 75% of those subjects completed the CP task successfully.



TABLE 4. Summary of Results

HYPOTHESFS	STATISTIC	SIGNIFICANCE
1. Training & Cognitive Style affect representation developed	2x2 MANOVA	N.S. ¹
2. Training & Cognitive Style affect development and performance of automated processes		
(a) Initial Performance (T ₀) • Main Effects	2×2 ANOVA	N.S.
 Interaction Field Dependent subjects better with Hierarchial training than Alphabetical training 	2x2 ANOVA Newman-Keuls	p<0.018 p<0.05
(b) Final Performance (T ₁₀₀₀) • Main Effects	2x2 ANOVA	N.S.
 Interaction Field Dependent subjects better with Alphabetical training than Hierarchial training 	2x2 ANOVA Newman-Keuls	N.S. p<0.05
 (c) Learning Rate (Alpha) Main Effects Interaction Highest for Field Dependent subjects with Alphabetical training 	2x2 ANOVA 2x2 ANOVA Newman-Keuls	N.S. p<0.023 p<0.05
3. Training & Cognitive Style affect controlled process task performance	Chi-Square	N.S.
4. Task representation affects automated processes	Squared Canonical Correlation	p<0.02
(a) Initial performance (T ₀)	Multiple Regression	p<0.003
(b) Final performance (T ₁₀₀₀)	Multiple Regression	N.S.
(c) Rate of learning (Alpha)	Multiple Regression	p<0.048
5. Task representation affects controlled process performance		
(a) Representation affects probability of success	Chi-Square	p<0.025
(b) Representation affects solution strategy		
 Higher overall purity scores in Direct group than in Single Branch 	Wilcoxon's Rank-Sum	p<0.05
 Higher overall purity scores in Direct group than in Multiple Branch 	Wilcoxon's Rank-Sum	p<0.05

¹N.S. = Not significant at p<0.05 level.



The above results support the view that a high level determinant of operator performance on cognitive-oriented tasks exists: domain representation. Previously, it has been suggested that training to develop automaticity and high level performance simply requires repetitive practice. However, the present results appear to indicate that, depending on individual operator characteristics, a higher level factor can significantly influence initial performance and the rate of learning on mundane and straightforward tasks which are well suited for automaticity. In addition, the task representation influences performance on more complex tasks, including the strategy used to complete them. Since computer-oriented tasks may require both types of performance from operators (automatic and controlled processes), emphasis should be placed on selecting and reinforcing the correct representation for the particular task requirements and individual operator characteristics. However, further research is necessary to determine mechanisms for teaching and reinforcing these representations. The present study did not identify factors which lead to the particular representation developed. With this knowledge, training programs could be targeted to develop representations most suited to the task and operator, thereby decreasing training time and increasing task performance.



1

V. REFERENCES

Adelson, B. (1981). The development of abstract categories in programming languages. *Memory and Cognition*, 9, 422-433.

Adelson, B. (1984). When novices surpass experts: the difficulty of a task may increase with expertise. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 10, 483-495.

Card, S.K., Moran, T.P. and Newell, A. (1983). The Psychology of Human-Computer Interaction. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ekstrom, R.B., French, J.W., Harman, H.H. and Dermen, D. (1976). Manual for Kit of Factor-Referenced Cognitive Tests. Princeton: Educational Testing Service.

Fisk, A.D. and Gallini, J.K. (1989). Training consistent components of tasks: Developing an instructional system based on automatic/controlled processing principles. *Human Factors*, 31, 453-464.

Holt, R.W., Boehm-Davis, D.A. and Schultz, A.C. (1987). Mental representations of programs for student and professional programmers. In G.M. Olson, S. Sheppard and E. Soloway (Eds.), *Empirical Studies of Programmers: Second Workshop*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Co., 33-46.

Kieras, D.E. and Bovair, S. (1984). The role of a mental model in learning to operate a device. *Cognitive Science*, 8, 255-273.

Kolodner, J.L. (1983). Towards an understanding of the role of expertise in the evolution from novice to expert. *International Journal of Man-Machine Studies*, 19, 497-518.

Koubek, R.J. and Salvendy, G. (1989). Cognitive performance of super-experts on computer program modification tasks. Working Paper, School of Industrial Engineering, Purdue University, West Lafayette IN. 47907.

Lamberti, D.M. and Newsome, S.L. (1989). Presenting abstract versus concrete information in expert systems: what is the impact on user performance. *International Journal of Man-Machine Studies*, 31, 27-45.

Mayer, R.E. (1989). The psychology of how novices learn computer programming. In E. Soloway and J.C. Spohrer (Eds.), *Studying the Novice Programmer*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 129-159.

McKeithen, K., Reitman, J.S., Reuter, H. and Hirtle, S.C. (1981). Knowledge organization and skill differences in computer programmers. *Cognitive Psychology*, 13, 307-325.



Murphy, G.L. and Wright, J.C. (1984). Changes in conceptual structure with expertise: differences between real-world experts and novices. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:* Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 10, 144-155.

Novick, L.R. (1988). Analogical transfer, problem similarity, and expertise. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 14, 510-520.

SAS Institute, (1988). SAS/STAT User's Guide. Cary, NC: SAS Institute.

Sein, M.K. and Bostrom, R.P. (1989). Individual differences and conceptual models in training novice users. *Human Computer Interaction*, 4, 197-229.

Wiedenbeck, S. (1985). Novice/expert differences in programming skills. *International Journal of Man-Machine Studies*, 23, 383-390.

Witkin, H.A., Lewis, H.B., Hertzman, M., Machover, K., Meissner, P.B., and Wapner, S. (1954). *Personality Through Perception*. New York: Harper.

Zeit, C.M. and Spoehr, K.T. (1989). Knowledge organization and the acquisition of procedural expertise. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 3, 313-336.



Distribution List

Dr. Terry Ackerman Educational Psychology 210 Education Bidg, University of Illinois Champaign, IL 61801

Dr. James Algina 1403 Norman Hall University of Florida Gainewille, FL 32605

Dr. Erling B. Andersen Department of Statistics Studiestraede 6 1455 Copenhagen DENMARK

Dr. Ronald Armstrong Rutgers University Graduate School of Management Newark, NJ 07102

Dr. Eva L. Baker UCLA Center for the Study of Evaluation 145 Moore Hall University of California Los Angeles, CA 90024

Dr. Laura L. Bernes College of Education University of Toledo 2801 W. Bancroft Street Toledo, OH 43606

Dr. William M. Bart University of Minnesota Dept. of Educ. Psychology 330 Burton Hall 178 Pillsbury Dr., S.E. Minnespolia, MN 55455

Dr. Isaac Bejar Law School Admissions Services P.O. Box 40 Newtown, PA 18940-0040

Dr. Menucha Birenbaum School of Education Tel Aviv University Ramat Aviv 69978 ISRAEL

Dr. Arthur S. Blaiwes Code N712 Naval Training Systems Center Orlando, FL 32813-7100

Dr. Bruce Blozom Defense Manpower Data Center 99 Pacific St. Suite 155A Monterey, CA 93943-3231

Cdt. Armoid Bohrer Sectie Psychologisch Onderzoek Rekruterings-En Selectiecentrum Kwartier Koningen Astrid Bruijnstraat 1120 Brussels, BELGIUM

Dr. Robert Breaux Code 281 Naval Training Systems Center Orlando, FL 32826-3224

Dr. Robert Brennan American College Testing Programs P. O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52243

Dr. Gregory Candell CTB/McGraw-Hill 2500 Garden Road Montersy, CA 93940 Dr. John B. Carroll 409 Elliott Rd., North Chapel Hill, NC 27514

Dr. John M. Carroll IBM Watson Research Center User Interface Institute P.O. Box 704 Yorktown Heighta, NY 10598

Dr. Robert M. Carroll Chief of Naval Operations OP-01B2 Washington, DC 20350

Dr. Raymond E. Christal UES LAMP Science Advisor AFHRL/MOEL Brooks AFB, TX 78235

Mr. Hua Hua Chung University of Illinois Department of Statistics 101 Illini Hall 725 South Wright St. Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Norman Cliff Department of Psychology Univ. of So. California Los Angeles, CA 90089-1061

Director, Manpower Program Center for Naval Analyses 4401 Ford Avenue P.O. Box 16268 Alexandria, VA 22302-0268

Director,
Manpower Support and
Readiness Program
Center for Naval Analysis
2000 North Beauregard Street

Dr. Stanley Collyer Office of Naval Technology Code 222 800 N. Quincy Street Arlington, VA 22217-5000

Alexandria, VA 22311

Dr. Hans F. Crombag Faculty of Law University of Limburg P.O. Box 616 Masstricht The NETHERLANDS 6200 MD

Ms. Carolyn R. Crone Johns Hopkins University Department of Psychology Charles & 34th Street Baltimore, MD 21218

Dr. Timothy Davey American College Testing Program P.O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52243

Dr. C. M. Dayton
Department of Measurement
Statistics & Evaluation
College of Education
University of Matyland
College Park, MD 20742

Dr. Ralph J. DeAyala Measurement, Statistics, and Evaluation Benjamin Bidg, Rm. 4112 University of Maryland College Park, MD 20742 Dr. Lou DiBello CERL University of Illinois 103 South Mathews Avenue Urbana, IL 61801

Dr. Dattprasad Divgi Center for Naval Analysis 4401 Ford Avenue P.O. Box 16268 Alexandria, VA 22302-0268

Mr. Hei-Ki Dong Bell Communications Research Room PYA-IK207 P.O. Box 1320 Piscataway, NJ 08855-1320

Dr. Fritz Drasgow University of Illinois Department of Psychology 603 E. Daniel St. Champsign, IL 61820

Defense Technical Information Center Cameron Station, Bldg 5 Alexandria, VA 22314 (2 Copies)

Dr. Stephen Dunbar 224B Lindquist Center for Measurement University of Iowa Iowa City, IA 52242

Dr. James A. Earles Air Force Human Resources Lab Brooks AFB, TX 78235

Dr. Susan Embreuson University of Kansas Psychology Department 426 Fraser Lawrence, KS 66045

Dr. George Englehard, Jr. Division of Educational Studies Emory University 210 Fishburne Bldg. Atlanta, GA 30322

ERIC Facility-Acquisitions 2440 Research Blvd, Suite 550 Rockville, MD 20850-3238

Dr. Benjamin A. Fairbank Operational Technologies Corp. 5825 Callaghan, Suite 225 San Antonio, TX 78228

Dr. Marshall J. Farr, Consultant Cognitive & Instructional Sciences 2520 North Vernon Street Arlington, VA 22207

Dr. P.A. Federico Code 51 NPRDC San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Dr. Leonard Feldt Lindquist Center for Measurement University of Iowa Iowa City, IA 52242

Dr. Richard L. Ferguson American College Testing P.O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52243

Dr. Gerhard Fischer Liebiggasse 5/3 A 1010 Vienna AUSTRIA



Dr. Myron Fischi
U.S. Arwy Hendquarters
DAPE-MRR
The Pentagon
Washington, DC 20310-0300

Prof. Donald Fitzgerald University of New England Department of Psychology surnidate, New South Wales 2351 AUSTRALIA

Mr. Paul Foley New Personnel R&D Center Sen Diego, CA 92152-4600

Dr. Alfred R. Fregly APOSR/NL, Bidg, 410 Bolling APB, DC 20332-6448

Dr. Robert D. Gibbons Illinois State Psychistric Inst. Rm 529W 1601 W. Tsylor Street Chicago, IL 60612

Dr. Janice Gifford University of Manachusetts School of Education Amherst, MA 01003

Dr. Drew Gitomer Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. Robert Glaser Learning Research & Development Center University of Pittsburgh 3939 O'Hara Street Pittsburgh, PA 15260

Dr. Sherrie Gott AFHRL/MOMJ Brooks AFB, TX 78235-5601

Dr. Bert Green Johns Hopkins University Department of Psychology Charles & 34th Street Beltimore, MD 21218

Michael Habon DORNIER GMBH P.O. Box 1420 D-7990 Friedrichshafen 1 WEST GERMANY

Prof. Edward Haertel School of Education Stanford University Stanford, CA 94305

Dr. Ronald K. Hambleton University of Massachusetts Laboratory of Psychometric and Evaluative Research Hills South, Room 152 Amberst, MA 01003

Dr. Delwyn Harnisch University of Illinois 51 Gerty Drive Champeign, IL 61820

Dr. Grant Henning Senior Research Scientist Division of Measurement Research and Services Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541

Ma. Rebecca Hetter Navy Personnel R&D Center Code 63 San Diego, CA 92152-6800 Dr. Thomas M. Hirsch ACT P. O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52243

Dr. Paul W. Holland Educational Testing Service, 21-T Rosedale Road Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. Paul Horst 677 G Street, #184 Chula Vista, CA 92010

Ms. Julia S. Hough Cambridge University Press 40 West 20th Street New York, NY 10011

Dr. William Howell
Chief Scientist
AFHRL/CA
Brooks AFB, TX 78235-5601

Dr. Lloyd Humphreys University of Illinois Department of Psychology 603 East Daniel Street Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Steven Hunka 3-104 Educ. N. University of Alberta Edmonton, Alberta CANADA T4G 2G5

Dr. Huynh Huynh College of Education Univ. of South Carolina Columbia, SC 29208

Dr. Robert Jannarone Elec. and Computer Eng. Dept. University of South Carolina Columbia, SC 29208

Dr. Kumar Joag-dev University of Illinois Department of Statistics 101 Illini Hall 725 South Wright Street Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Douglas H. Jones 1280 Woodfern Court Toms River, NJ 08753

Dr. Brian Junker Carnegie-Mellon University Department of Statistics Schenley Park Pittsburgh, PA 15213

Dr. Michael Kaplan Office of Basic Research U.S. Army Research Institute 5001 Eisenhower Avenue Alexandria, VA 22333-5600

Dr. Milton S. Katz European Science Coordination Office U.S. Army Research Institute Box 65 FPO New York 09510-1500

Prof. John A. Keats Department of Psychology University of Newcastle N.S.W. 2308 AUSTRALIA Dr. Jwa-keun Kim Department of Psychology Middle Tennessee State University P.O. Box 522 Murfressboro, TN 37132

Mr. Soon-Hoon Kim Computer-based Education Research Laboratory University of Illinois Urbana, IL 61801

Dr. G. Gage Kingsbury Portland Public Schools Research and Evaluation Department 501 North Dison Street P. O. Box 3107 Portland, OR 97209-3107

Dr. William Koch Box 7246, Mess and Eval. Ctr. University of Texas-Austin Austin, TX 78703

Dr. Richard J. Koubek
Department of Biomedical
& Human Factors
139 Engineering & Math Bidg,
Wright State University
Dayton, OH 45435

Dr. Laonard Kroeker Navy Personnel R&D Center Code 62 San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Dr. Jerry Lehnus Defense Manpower Data Center Suite 400 1600 Wilson Blvd Rosslyn, VA 22209

Dr. Thomas Leonard University of Wisconsin Department of Statistics 1210 West Dayton Street Madison, WI 53705

Dr. Michael Levine Educational Psychology 210 Education Bldg, University of Illinois Champaign, IL 61801

Dr. Charles Lewis Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541-0001

Mr. Rodney Lim University of Illinois Department of Psychology 603 E. Daniel St. Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Robert L. Linn Campus Box 249 University of Colorado Boulder, CO 80309-0249

Dr. Robert Lockman Center for Naval Analysis 4401 Ford Avenue P.O. Box 16268 Alexandria, VA 22302-0268

Dr. Frederic M. Lord Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. Richard Luecht ACT P. O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52243



Dr. George B. Macready Department of Measurement Statistics & Evaluation College of Education University of Maryland College Park, MD 20742

Dr. Gary Marco Stop 31-E Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08451

Dr. Classen J. Martin Office of Chief of Naval Operations (OP 13 F) Navy Annex, Room 2832 Washington, DC 20350

Dr. James R. McBride HumRRO 6430 Elmburst Drive San Diego, CA 92120

Dr. Clarence C. McCormick HQ, USMEPCOM/MEPCT 2500 Green Bey Road North Chicago, IL 60064

Mr. Christopher McCusker University of Blinois Department of Psychology 603 E. Daniel St. Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Robert McKinley Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541

Mr. Alan Mead c/o Dr. Michael Levine Educational Psychology 210 Education Bidg, University of Illinois Champsier, IL 61801

Dr. Timothy Miller ACT P. O. Box 168 Iown City, IA 52243

Dr. Robert Mislevy Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. William Montague NPRDC Code 13 San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Ma. Kathleen Moreno Navy Personnel R&D Center Code 62 San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Headquarters Marine Corps Code MPI-20 Washington, DC 20380

Dr. Ratna Nandakumar Educational Studies Willard Hall, Room 213E University of Delaware Newark, DE 19716

Library, NPRDC Code P201L San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Librarian
Naval Center for Applied Research
in Artificial Intelligence
Naval Research Laboratory
Code 5510
Washington, DC 20375-5000

Dr. Harold F. O'Neil, Jr.
School of Education • WPH 801
Department of Educational
Psychology & Technology
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, CA 90089-0031

Dr. James B. Olsen WICAT Systems 1875 South State Street Orem, UT 84058

Office of Naval Research, Code 1142CS 800 N. Quincy Street Arlington, VA 22217-5000 (6 Copies)

Dr. Judith Orasanu Basic Research Office Army Research Institute 5001 Eisenhower Avenue Alexandria, VA 22333

Dr. Jesse Oriansky Institute for Defense Analyses 1801 N. Beauregard St. Alexandria, VA 22311

Dr. Peter J. Pashley Educational Testing Service Rosedale Road Princeton, NJ 08541

Wayne M. Patience American Council on Education GED Testing Service, Suite 20 One Dupont Circle, NW Washington, DC 20036

Dr. James Paulson Department of Psychology Portland State University P.O. Box 751 Portland, OR 97207

Dept. of Administrative Sciences Code 54 Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, CA 93943-5026

Dr. Mark D. Reckase ACT P. O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52243

Dr. Malcolm Rec AFHRL/MOA Brooks AFB, TX 78235

Mr. Steve Reiss N660 Elliott Hall University of Minnesota 75 E. River Road Minneapolis, MN 55455-0344

Dr. Carl Ross CNET-PDCD Building 90 Great Lakes NTC, IL 60088

Dr. J. Ryan Department of Education University of South Carolina Columbia, SC 29208

Dr. Fumiko Samejima Department of Psychology University of Tennessee 310B Austin Pesy Bldg, Knoxville, TN 37916-0900

Mr. Drew Sanda NPRDC Code 62 San Diego, CA 92152-6800 Lowell Schoer
Psychological & Quantitative
Foundations
College of Education
University of Iowa
Iowa City, IA 52242

Dr. Mary Schratz 4100 Parkside Carlsbad, CA 92008

Dr. Den Segali Navy Personnel R&D Center Sen Diego, CA 92152

Dr. Robin Shealy University of Illinois Department of Statistics 101 Illini Hall 725 South Wright St. Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Kazuo Shigemasu 7-9-24 Kugenuma-Kaigan Fujiaswa 251 JAPAN

Dr. Randall Shumaker Naval Research Laboratory Code 5510 4555 Overlook Avenue, S.W. Washington, DC 20375-5000

Dr. Richard E. Snow School of Education Stanford University Stanford, CA 94305

Dr. Richard C. Sorensen Navy Personnel R&D Center San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Dr. Judy Spray ACT P.O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52243

Dr. Martha Stocking Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. Peter Stoloff Center for Naval Analysis 4401 Ford Avenue P.O. Box 16268 Alexandria, VA 22302-, 268

Dr. William Stout University of Illinois Department of Statistics 101 Illini Hall 725 South Wright St. Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Hariharan Swaminathan Laboratory of Psychometric and Evaluation Research School of Education University of Massachusetts Amberst, MA 01003

Mr. Brad Sympson Navy Personnel R&D Center Code-62 San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Dr. John Tangney AFOSR/NL, Bidg. 410 Bolling AFB, DC 20332 6448

Dr. Kikumi Tatsuoka Educational Testing Service Mail Stop 03-T Princeton, NJ 08341



Dr. Maurice Tatauoka Educational Testing Service Mail Stop 03-T Princeton, NJ 08341

Dr. David Thissen
Department of Psychology
University of Kanses
Lawrence, KS 66044

Mr. Thomas J. Thomas Johns Hopkins University Department of Psychology Charles & 34th Street Baltimore, MD 21218

Mr. Gary Thomasson University of Illinois Educational Psychology Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Robert Tsutskaws University of Missouri Department of Statistics 222 Math. Sciences Bidg. Columbia, MO 65211

Dr. Ladyard Tucker University of Illinois Department of Psychology 603 E. Daniel Street Champaign, IL 61820

Dr. Devid Vale Assessment Systems Corp. 2233 University Avenue Suite 440 St. Paul, MN 55114

Dr. Frank L. Vicino Navy Personnel R&D Center San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Dr. Howard Wainer Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. Michael T. Waller University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Educational Psychology Department Box 413 Milwaukee, WI 53201

Dr. Ming-Mei Wang Educational Testing Service Mail Stop 03-T Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. Thomas A. Warm FAA Academy AAC934D P.O. Box 25082 Oklahoma City, OK 73125

Dr. Brien Waters HumRRO 1100 S. Washington Alexandria, VA 22314

Dr. David J. Weiss N660 Elliott Hall University of Minnesota 75 E. River Road Minnespolis, MN 55455-0344

Dr. Ronald A. Weitzman Box 146 Carmel, CA 93921

Major John Weish AFHRL/MOAN Brooks AFB, TX 78223

Dr. Douglas Wetzel Code 51 Navy Personnel R&D Center San Diego, CA 92152-6800 Dr. Rand R. Wilcox University of Southern California Department of Psychology Los Angeles, CA 90089-1061

German Military Representative ATTN: Wolfgang Wildgrube Streitkraeftsamt D-5300 Bonn 2 4000 Brandywine Street, NW Washington, DC 20016

Dr. Bruce Williams
Department of Educational
Psychology
University of Illinois
Urbana, IL 61801

Dr. Hilde Wing Federal Aviation Administration 800 Independence Ave, SW Washington, DC 20591

Mr. John H. Wolfe Navy Personnel R&D Center San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Dr. George Wong Biostatistics Laboratory Memorial Skuan-Kettering Cancer Center 1275 York Avenue New York, NY 10021

Dr. Wallace Wulfeck, III Navy Personnel R&D Center Corle 51 San Diego, CA 92152-6800

Dr. Kentaro Yamamoto 02-T Educational Testing Service Rosedale Road Princeton, NJ 08541

Dr. Wendy Yen CTB/McGraw Hill Del Monte Research Park Monterey, CA 93940

Dr. Joseph L. Young National Science Foundation Room 320 1800 G Street, N.W. Washington, DC 20550

Mr. Anthony R. Zara National Council of State Boards of Nursing, Inc. 625 North Michigan Avenue Suite 1544 Chicago, IL. 60611

